



SO5032 Lecture 10

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Worked example

Housing tenure

- Housing tenure: probability of owning outright, BHPS data

```
. logit ownocc age
```

```
Iteration 0:    log likelihood = -8728.6773
```

```
Iteration 1:    log likelihood = -7150.2389
```

```
Iteration 2:    log likelihood = -7095.7194
```

```
Iteration 3:    log likelihood = -7095.5268
```

```
Iteration 4:    log likelihood = -7095.5268
```

```
Logistic regression
```

```
Number of obs = 14,182
```

```
LR chi2(1)     = 3266.30
```

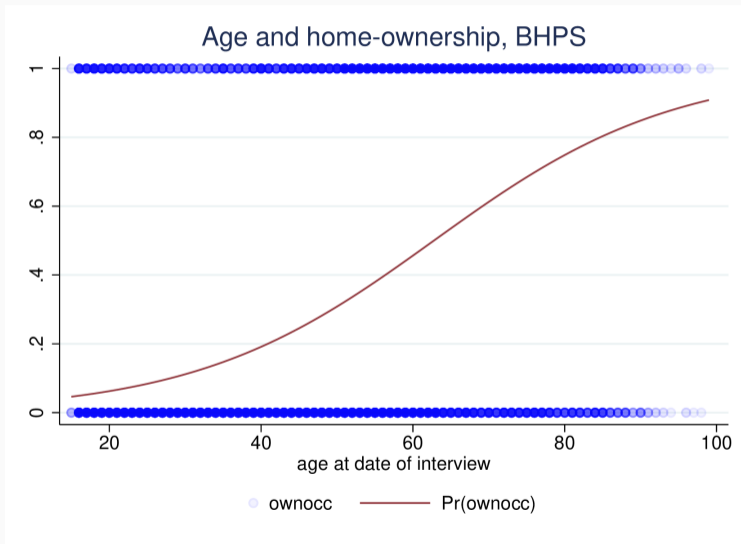
```
Prob > chi2    = 0.0000
```

```
Pseudo R2     = 0.1871
```

```
Log likelihood = -7095.5268
```

ownocc	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
age	.0633183	.0012705	49.84	0.000	.0608281	.0658084
_cons	-3.974023	.0697795	-56.95	0.000	-4.110788	-3.837258

Predictions



Predictions

$$LO = a + bX$$

$$\text{Odds} = \exp(a + bX)$$

$$P = \text{Odds} / (1 + \text{Odds})$$

X increases by 1:

- LO by b (additive)
- Odds by e^b (multiplicative)
- P is more complicated

- Log-odds

$$X = x \quad \text{LO}(x) = a + bx$$

$$X = x+1 \quad \text{LO}(x+1) = a + b(x + 1) = a + bx + b$$

$$\text{Difference: } \text{LO}(x+1) - \text{LO}(x) = b$$

Prediction: odds scale

- Odds

$$X = x \quad \text{Odds}(x) = e^{a+bx} = e^a e^{bx}$$

$$X = x+1 \quad \text{Odds}(x+1) = e^{a+b(x+1)} = e^{a+bx+b} = e^a e^{bx} e^b$$

$$\text{Ratio} \quad \text{Odds}(x+1)/\text{Odds}(x) = e^b$$

- Hence odds-ratio: if X increases by 1, OR increases by factor of e^b

Odds ratio

```
. tab univ ownocc
```

univ	ownocc		Total
	0	1	
0	8,335	3,835	12,170
1	1,514	499	2,013
Total	9,849	4,334	14,183

$$\text{OR} = \frac{(499/1514)}{(3835/8335)} = 0.7163$$

```
. logit ownocc i.univ
```

```
Iteration 0: log likelihood = -8729.863  
Iteration 1: log likelihood = -8710.9025  
Iteration 2: log likelihood = -8710.8468  
Iteration 3: log likelihood = -8710.8468
```

```
Logistic regression
```

```
Number of obs = 14,183
```

```
LR chi2(1) = 38.03
```

```
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

```
Pseudo R2 = 0.0022
```

```
Log likelihood = -8710.8468
```

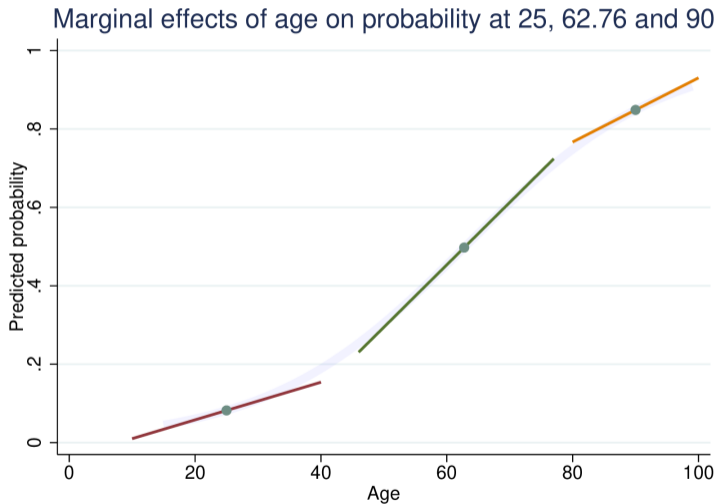
ownocc	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]
1.univ	-.3336103	.0551837	-6.05	0.000	-.4417683 -.2254522
_cons	-.7762941	.0195124	-39.78	0.000	-.8145376 -.7380506

$$e^b = e^{-.3336103} = 0.7163$$

Predictions on probability scale

- Effect of X on the probability scale is non-linear
- Low when p is either high or low
- Highest at $p = 0.5$, odds = 1, log-odds = 0
- The steepest slope is at $p = 0.5$, with a value of $\frac{\beta}{4}$

Marginal effects



Multiple explanatory variables

```
. logit ownocc age i.univ
```

```
Iteration 0:   log likelihood = -8728.6773
```

```
Iteration 1:   log likelihood = -7150.3435
```

```
Iteration 2:   log likelihood = -7094.4048
```

```
Iteration 3:   log likelihood = -7094.1883
```

```
Iteration 4:   log likelihood = -7094.1882
```

```
Logistic regression
```

```
Number of obs = 14,182
```

```
LR chi2(2)     = 3268.98
```

```
Prob > chi2    = 0.0000
```

```
Pseudo R2     = 0.1873
```

```
Log likelihood = -7094.1882
```

ownocc	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
age	.0636471	.0012888	49.38	0.000	.061121	.0661731
1.univ	.0999785	.0608614	1.64	0.100	-.0193076	.2192646
_cons	-4.004807	.0724889	-55.25	0.000	-4.146883	-3.862731

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Inference

- In practice, inference is similar to OLS though based on a different logic
- For each explanatory variable, $H_0 : \beta = 0$ is the interesting null
- $z = \frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE}$ is approximately normally distributed (large sample property)
- More usually, the Wald test is used: $\left(\frac{\hat{\beta}}{SE}\right)^2$ has a χ^2 distribution with one degree of freedom

Likelihood ratio tests

- The “likelihood ratio” test is thought more robust than the Wald test for smaller samples
- Where l_0 is the likelihood of the model without X_j , and l_1 that with it, the quantity

$$-2 \left(\log \frac{l_0}{l_1} \right) = -2 (\log l_0 - \log l_1)$$

is χ^2 distributed with one degree of freedom

Nested models

- More generally, $-2 \left(\log \frac{l_0}{l_1} \right)$ tests nested models: where model 1 contains all the variables in model 0, plus m extra ones, it tests the null that all the extra β coefficients are zero (χ^2 with m df)
- If we compare a model against the null model (no explanatory variables, it tests

$$H_0 : \beta_1 = \beta_2 = \dots = \beta_k = 0$$

- Strong analogy with F test in OLS

Example

```
. qui logit ownocc age
. est store mod1
. logit ownocc age i.educ
```

```
Iteration 0:  log likelihood = -8728.6773
Iteration 1:  log likelihood = -7136.2054
Iteration 2:  log likelihood = -7077.7722
Iteration 3:  log likelihood = -7077.5203
Iteration 4:  log likelihood = -7077.5203
```

Logistic regression

Number of obs = 14,182
LR chi2(3) = 3302.31
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
Pseudo R2 = 0.1892

Log likelihood = -7077.5203

ownocc	Coefficient	Std. err.	z	P> z	[95% conf. interval]	
age	.0652599	.0013433	48.58	0.000	.0626271	.0678927
educ						
Med	.3041599	.0673504	4.52	0.000	.1721556	.4361642
Lo	-.1075582	.0461399	-2.33	0.020	-.1979907	-.0171257
._cons	-4.060514	.0730524	-55.58	0.000	-4.203694	-3.917333

```
. lrtest mod1
```

Likelihood-ratio test

Assumption: mod1 nested within .

```
LR chi2(2) = 36.01
Prob > chi2 = 0.0000
```

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Margins command

"Average Marginal Effect"

- "What would happen to the average predicted probability if we increased X?"
- For linear regression, increase X by 1 => increase by b
 - increase X by 10 => increase by $b \times 10$
 - increase X by 0.1 => increase by $b \times 0.1$
 - since it's a straight line
- For AME in logistic we use the slope of the tangent, for each X value
- Average across the observed data
- Gives something like a LPM slope

```
. margins, dydx(age)
```

```
Average marginal effects
```

```
Number of obs = 14,182
```

```
Model VCE: OIM
```

```
Expression: Pr(ownocc), predict()
```

```
dy/dx wrt: age
```

	Delta-method				[95% conf. interval]	
	dy/dx	std. err.	z	P> z		
age	.0104836	.0001382	75.84	0.000	.0102126	.0107545

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Maximum likelihood

Maximum likelihood estimation

- What is this “likelihood”?
- Unlike OLS, logistic regression (and many, many other models) are estimated by *maximum likelihood estimation*
- In general this works by choosing values for the parameter estimates which maximise the probability (likelihood) of observing the actual data
- OLS can be ML estimated, and yields exactly the same results

Iterative search

- Sometimes the values can be chosen analytically
 - A likelihood function is written, defining the probability of observing the actual data given parameter estimates
 - Differential calculus derives the values of the parameters that maximise the likelihood, for a given data set
- Often, such “closed form solutions” are not possible, and the values for the parameters are chosen by a systematic computerised search (multiple iterations)
- Extremely flexible, allows estimation of a vast range of complex models within a single framework

Likelihood as a quantity

- Either way, a given model yields a specific maximum likelihood for a give data set
- This is a probability, henced bounded $[0 : 1]$
- Reported as log-likelihood, hence bounded $[-\infty : 0]$
- Thus is usually a large negative number
- Where an iterative solution is used, likelihood at each stage is usually reported – *normally* getting nearer 0 at each step

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Tabular data

- If all the explanatory variables are categorical (or have few fixed values) your data set can be represented as a table
- If we think of it as a table where each cell contains n yeses and $m - n$ noes (n successes out of m trials) we can fit grouped logistic regression
- n successes out of m trials implies a binomial distribution of degree m

$$\log \frac{n}{m - n} = \alpha + \beta X$$

- The parameter estimates will be exactly the same as if the data were treated individually

Tabular data and goodness of fit

- But unlike with individual data, we can calculate goodness of fit, by relating observed successes to predicted in each cell
- If these are close we cannot reject the null hypothesis that the model is incorrect (i.e., you want a high p-value)
- Where l_i is the likelihood of the current model, and l_s is the likelihood of the “saturated model” the test statistic is

$$-2 \left(\log \frac{l_i}{l_s} \right)$$

- The saturated model predicts perfectly and has as many parameters as there are “settings” (cells in the table)
- The test has *df* of number of settings less number of parameters estimated, and is χ^2 distributed